

CURRICULUM JOURNAL

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NEWS NOTES

Dayton Creates Curriculum Department. Upon the recommendation of Superintendent Emerson H. Landis, the Dayton Board of Education created, on July 15, 1940, a Curriculum Department under the direction of an Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Curriculum. This department will be responsible for continuous curriculum development in both elementary and secondary schools of the city.

The first phase of the program will consist of a careful study of the objectives and aims of Dayton secondary schools and the development of a program of curriculum revision in light of the objectives which are set up. Each high school in the city will organize a "School Coordinating Committee" and a "Departmental Committee" in the various subject areas. The "Coordinating Committee" in each school will concern itself with the objectives of its own school and give special attention to the integration and correlation of instruction in the various departments of the school. Two or more lay patrons will be included on each of the "Coordinating Committees." A "City-wide Departmental Committee" will be appointed to work on problems peculiar to each departmental area.

Each of these committees will include lay representatives as well as representatives from the elementary schools. The entire program will be coordinated by a Central Advisory

Committee composed of representatives of school and departmental committees, high school principals, an elementary school principal, an elementary teacher, and three or four laymen.

Much helpful guidance in developing a long-range program of curriculum development is being furnished by the College of Education, Ohio State University. Harold L. Boda has been appointed assistant superintendent in charge of curriculum.

Democracy and Administration. A committee of the American Association of University Professors recently made a study of the place and function of faculties in college and university government. The following is a brief summary of the findings: As a group, state universities in their procedures provide for significantly more faculty participation in budgetary procedures than does the total group; but specific universities may have either democratic or autocratic administrative structures. Among women's colleges there is a significantly larger amount of trustee-faculty cooperation, and of faculty participation in appointments, promotions, and dismissals than is characteristic of the total 177 institutions; but a slightly smaller degree of consultation with faculty concerning budgetary matters is to be observed. These colleges vary widely in their procedures. Engineering colleges vary less than the total group, ap-

proximating modal usage in their procedures, but tending to be slightly more democratic than the total group in dealing with appointments, promotions, and dismissals and with budgetary procedures. *The teachers colleges, in general, are autocratic in their administrative procedures.* Since these colleges equip many teachers, a careful study of the situation will give cause for reflection to anyone interested in conserving the traditional democratic procedures of community life in this country. The replies of this group also indicate that sixteen of the twenty-three faculties do not elect any faculty committee. The sampling of large endowed universities with graduate schools indicates that they are significantly more democratic in their usages than the total group, although conspicuously less so than the most democratic state universities.

The New Mexico Instructional Program. The grant of the General Education Board for assistance in the New Mexico Program for the Improvement of Instruction having recently expired, the administrative and supervisory program was reorganized on a reduced budget. The State Board of Education authorized the establishment of the Division of Instruction within the Department of Education.

The Division of Instruction is composed of the educational staff of the Department of Education, with Mrs. Grace J. Corrigan, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, as Director of the Division of Instruction; Mrs. Marie M. Holland, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction, as field administrator of the program for the Division of Instruction; Mr. L. W.

Clark, Assistant Director of the Division of Instruction; Mrs. Jennie M. Gonzales, Supervisor of In-service Teacher Training; Mr. E. W. Bahr, Chief, Curriculum Division; and Mr. James A. McNeil, Chief, Research Division.

Another change which was brought about by a reduced budget in 1939 was that of moving the Curriculum Laboratory from the University of New Mexico to the Department of Education in Santa Fe. There was just enough money available to employ one person at a minimum salary to head the curriculum center. By having the curriculum center in Santa Fe and by reorganizing the Division of Instruction, it was possible to carry on this work efficiently through the help of the Staff of the Division of Instruction. The present office acts as a laboratory for all superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers who ask for help in educational advancement and materials for furthering the instructional program.

The means which the State Department of Education has utilized in evaluating the development and outcomes of the program have been through follow-up work, observation in classrooms and in meetings, observation of results produced by materials distributed from the Department; checking on requests for help, reports received on the organization, administration and operation of the programs, and field problems brought in by members of the Educational Staff.

These observations have indicated to the Staff that, through the program, progress has been made in improvement of instructional procedure, in improvement of the school plant, in encouraging pupil and teacher growth,

and in establishing a closer cooperation between school and community.

The aim of the Staff for the Division of Instruction is to continue to improve and administer the Instructional Program by doing their very best with the limited resources now available.

Boulder Program Gathers Basic Information. During the school year of 1939-1940 a program of continuous curriculum development was undertaken in the Boulder secondary schools. While a prearranged curriculum design was not at that time adopted, common agreement was reached among the Curriculum Council and the secondary teachers in general that pupils needs should serve as the point of departure in all curriculum revision and building. In accordance with this basic idea, plans were made for a series of at least two detailed investigations which promised to bring to light more definitely and clearly the needs of boys and girls in the community of Boulder. A mimeographed bulletin containing the results of the first investigation has just been published. Its purpose was to provide detailed, basic information about the vocational interests, abilities, achievements, and home backgrounds of the pupil population of the Boulder High School. The second study which is contemplated for the immediate future will investigate the status of out-of-school youth of the community who have at some time been enrolled in the Boulder Secondary Schools. The study recommends that consideration be given to erasing the lines between curriculums. If guidance work functions effectively, the courses and experiences chosen by a pupil should be related to the

needs, interests, and abilities of the individual pupil rather than to a pre-arranged configuration of courses.

What the High Schools Ought to Teach. At the request of the American Youth Commission, a representative committee of ten educators recently prepared a report of the major needed changes in the curriculum of the American secondary schools on which they could agree. The committee criticized the present program of vocational and trade schools. Their work is as specialized as the traditional preprofessional courses and aims to cultivate skills for which there is only a limited demand. The charge is made that the secondary schools emphasize preparation for the so-called white collar jobs for which there are a limited number of openings.

The committee discusses a demand for a reorganized curriculum. The first of the positive recommendations is a section urging a continuation of instruction in reading. The various forms of reading necessary to become a fluent independent reader are discussed and extensive reading in libraries is advocated. An equally strong recommendation in the report is that work experience be made a part of the curriculum of high schools. Praise is accorded government youth work agencies for pointing the way to the inclusion of work experience in high schools.

The committee asserts that the one fact about the social studies is that there must be far more instruction in these fields than there has been in the past. The obligation of finding some way of preparing young people for effective participation in community

life has become a public obligation which must be met if social chaos is to be avoided. In addition to instruction in social studies, there must be a place in any program of general education for a course in personal problems, among which are those of physical and mental health and of family life.

The committee urges that it is important for the secondary school of the future to provide greater opportunities for unified experiences in the various fields.

Discussing frankly the situation regarding the preparation of curriculum materials, the report recommends that a special agency be set up for this purpose.

Terminal Curricula in Junior Colleges. Almost one-third of the students in junior colleges of the United States are enrolled in terminal curricula, mostly semi-professional and vocational, says a statement by the American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D. C., based on investigation by its Commission on Junior College Terminal Education. "Terminal curricula," according to the commission, "are designed for students who wish in one or two years to gain an understanding of their intellectual, social and civic environments, to explore several fields as an aid in making occupational choice, or to acquire vocational training which will lead to employment in semi-professional fields."

The report is based on courses for 1938-39, as given by 426 institutions, of which 293 offered terminal curricula. More junior college students are studying business or secretarial work than any other vocational subject, the report shows. Two-year

courses in general business were offered by 183 junior colleges. Forty-one junior colleges reported two-year curricula in aviation. The report did not cover the pilot training courses of the Civil Aeronautics Authority in 109 junior colleges. Terminal courses in music were given by 141 junior colleges, though the enrollment in these courses was only 1,409, as compared with 1,550 enrolled in fifty-one two-year courses in general engineering.

Technical training, as reported, included mechanical engineering in twenty-nine junior colleges, electrical engineering in twenty-five; civil engineering, sixteen; radio engineering, nine; chemical engineering, eight; building trades, eight; auto mechanics, six; laboratory technique, six; oil technology, five; drafting, three; mining, three; agricultural engineering, two; air conditioning, two; geology, two; navigation, two; and welding, one.

The training of medical secretaries is a new field, now recognized by two-year courses in thirty-three junior colleges. Librarianship is taught in forty-seven, social service in twenty-eight, recreational leadership in twenty, mortuary science in ten, religious education in eight. Of the fine arts other than music, art is given as a two-year course in ninety-seven junior colleges, architecture in twenty-nine, speech and dramatics in twenty, photography in ten, interior decoration in three, and fashion illustration and costume designing in three.

Defense of Democracy. There is a strong feeling in New York State concerning the role of the schools in the present crisis as the defenders of de-

mocracy. It is felt that children should be taught to know and understand the long, upward struggle of mankind to attain and maintain social justice or, in other words, to know and appreciate the long fight for civil liberties and democracy. The feeling here has recently culminated in a state-wide conference on "Democratic Processes" held in Schenectady on July 5 and 6. In the state-wide cooperative program in curriculum planning in the field of social studies, a special attack has been made upon the problems of teaching democracy in the elementary schools. The national defense program is permeating every corner of New York State and a huge vocational educational program began in all the school buildings last summer. Last winter the state legislature passed fresh laws requiring the teaching of the State and Federal Bill of Rights in all public and private schools. Although this was already being done, new material is being prepared for the use of the schools in the fall.

Organize to Improve Supervisory Work. A plan to initiate improvement in the work of critic teachers, supervisors, and curriculum workers in several Southeastern States was developed at a recent meeting in Atlanta. Representatives from Tennessee, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida were present at the meeting, and a regional commission was formed to develop plans for the project. A similar movement is already under way in North Carolina and that state will be included in the regional work. Hope was expressed that South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana will also be added. The regional commission is

composed of the following: A. R. Mead, Director of Educational Research, University of Florida, chairman; Hal G. Lewis, Associate in Educational Research, University of Florida; J. J. Fuller, Director of Student Teaching, University of Tennessee; Mattie Thomas, State Supervisor, State Department of Education, Columbia, South Carolina; M. L. Orr, Director of the Summer Session and Director of Student Teaching, Alabama State College; Morris Mitchell, Department of Education, State Teachers College, Florence, Alabama; Floyd Jordan, College of Education, University of Georgia; Ruth Fitzgerald, Director of Student Teaching, State College for Women, Greensboro, North Carolina. The commission will be increased by the addition of members from other states in the Southeastern area and also by representatives among curriculum workers and supervisory workers in public schools.

A New Film Magazine. A new magazine in the field of motion picture, *Film News*, was published in July by the American Film Center, Incorporated, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City. Unique among film publications, most of which are concerned chiefly with Hollywood, *Film News* emphasizes news about short films, one-, two-, and three-reelers, sixteen mm. as well as the theatrical thirty-five mm. These include a great number of types of film production heretofore heard about chiefly through grapevines. Complete coverage is given to the newly popular documentary film as well as fact, industrial, travel, and instructional films and newsreels. Addressed to the general public rather

than the educational specialist, *Film News*, which has been published experimentally as a news letter for the past six months, is of particular interest to schools, colleges, clubs, numerous cultural organizations, and to the makers and distributors of films. Monthly publication in photo-offset is in keeping with its intimate news character. Subscriptions are one dollar a year. Editors are Donald Slesinger and John McDonald. The publisher, American Film Center, Incorporated, is a non-profit organization, financed by a grant of the Rockefeller Foundation, and created to promote the production and use of films of educational value.

Kentucky Conference on Teacher Education. A week-long conference on teacher education designed to promote cooperative planning and action of teacher educating institutions in Kentucky was held from September 9 to 14, inclusive, on the campus of Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College. Representatives of the state department of education, faculty members of the teachers colleges and the College of Education of the University of Kentucky, representatives of the private colleges of the state, and twenty-five public school men and women were present. The purpose of the conference was to attempt to improve the quality of instruction given to those who plan to teach in the public schools of Kentucky.

Program of National Congress of Parents and Teachers. A three-year program of action on the topic, "The Child in His Community," has been launched by the National Congress of

Parents and Teachers, through its 28,000 local parent-teacher associations. Based upon the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, the program calls upon two and a quarter million parent-teacher members to concentrate upon "goals to be reached so that every child may have the opportunity to live a full life, truly satisfying to himself and useful to his community." The program urges parent-teacher associations to promote activities basic to the well-being of American children and youth, including: extension of parent education; encouragement of higher standards of family life; emphasis on spiritual values in child development; promotion of economic security for all families; support of housing programs; support of federal and state aid for local schools; provision of adequate recreational and library facilities; improvement of high school education, especially vocational training; promotion of child labor laws; fostering of health education, public health and social services; development of tolerance of all races and creeds; study of conditions producing migrant families and support of measures to prevent such conditions; and translation of research into action in health, education, and social adjustment.

Study of Negro Youth. In a Minor Key is a study of Negro youth prepared for the American Youth Commission by Ira De A. Reid, professor of sociology at Atlanta University, and published by the American Council on Education. The book is the introductory volume of a series of research studies into the Negro youth problem now being conducted by the

American Youth Commission. Forthcoming studies will suggest specific phases of the problem for which answers may be found. The author boiled down many studies on employment, education, health, recreation, etc. Each chapter falls into two parts, the first presenting a vivid summary of a large area of human experience; the second supporting the story with facts.

Convention of National Council of Teachers of English. Teachers of English will be interested in the annual convention of the National Council of Teachers of English, which will be held in Chicago, November 21-23. Problems of the teaching of reading and of literature, composition and grammar, provision for the gifted and slow-learner, articulation between elementary and high school and college, and the new emphasis upon teaching discrimination in photoplays and radio programs will be dealt with by nationally known speakers. Special group meetings will deal with the particular needs of teachers in elementary and secondary schools and colleges.

Monterey Schools Develop Science Course of Study. The Monterey, California, Elementary Schools are completing the development of a science course of study for Grades IV to VIII. The committee has taken into consideration the needs and interests of the children in selecting the material. The objectives are well thought out and experimentation has been conducted with the material, in the classroom, in order to ascertain whether it is workable. The whole program is built within areas, wherever possible, that will correlate with the social studies and, there-

fore, becomes an integral part of the curriculum.

Information Wanted. One of the graduate studies being sponsored by the University of Oregon Curriculum Laboratory is an appraisal of illustrated unit materials such as *Building America*, Compton's *Pictured Source Materials*, the *Instructor's Illustrated Units*, and the Creative Educational Society's *Visualized Curriculum Series*. In order to make the study as comprehensive as possible, the sponsor and the student will appreciate the names and publishers of other illustrated teaching materials of a similar nature. Any information should be addressed to Hugh B. Wood, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, by November 1, 1940.

Brief Items. Under the leadership of Russell Cooper, Professor of History and Political Science, Cornell College, Iowa, a survey will be made of the content of courses taken by prospective teachers in liberal arts colleges. The survey is sponsored by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools with a view to the improvement of the preparation for high school teaching in small liberal arts colleges. * * * Galen Saylor, who recently completed his work for the doctorate in the field of the curriculum at Columbia University, has joined the faculty of the University of Nebraska as Associate Professor of Secondary Education. His doctoral dissertation was a comparison between counties in Virginia which participated extensively in the state program of curriculum improvement and counties which did not.

NATIONAL DEFENSE AND THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

By H. L. CASWELL

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AT FIRST glance it may seem quite a stretch of the imagination to relate national defense and the school curriculum as they are associated in this title. Just now we are thinking of national defense primarily in terms of materials and men. This is a natural reaction to the scenes reported in Europe. The devastation wrought by fleets of airplanes and the crushing force of monster tanks have made a terrific impression on us. It is obvious that materials have assumed increased importance in actual conflict since the last war. Citizen armies which resist with rifle and bayonet are no longer effective means of protection. A nation cannot as in times gone by wait for danger to threaten and then rise and successfully defend its home and liberty. This the catastrophic events of recent months show beyond the shadow of a doubt. But Europe has another lesson to teach us as well.

National defense is far more than a matter of ships, airplanes, and tanks. It is still much too soon to know just what happened in the fall of the French Republic, but one thing seems perfectly clear. Shortages in defense factors other than tanks, planes, and mechanized troops played a large part. Qualities evidently were lacking in the general citizenry of the republic to provide a sound basis for national defense. These factors are more intangible than materials, but they too have assumed increased importance in a modern national defense program.

Entire peoples are struggling as never before. The army and navy protect but one front of attack. Total

war means economic strife; it means a war of ideas and ideals; it means psychological attack. Today no people in the world can escape conflict. We may delay and even avoid an actual physical struggle. Let us devoutly hope so. But the will of our people, our national solidarity, our conviction of the worth of the American way of life—all these are being tested in the front line of conflict. Let us not be complacent with voting a two-ocean navy; let us not assume that 50,000 airplanes will give us adequate defense; let us not delude ourselves into thinking that this is a task primarily for the army and the navy. This is total war. It is war of ideas and ideals, of methods of living, of fundamental values, of economic development. It is conflict bearing on all fronts of living. It is war in which actual physical conflict plays only a part. We must plan a defense which envisions not only the present with its depressing possibilities, but also a future with continued and extended psychological, ideational, and economic tensions. Defense rests as never before on the total resources of a people — psychological, ideational, moral, physical, and technical. It is imperative that our nation recognize the wide ramifications of the defense problem.

Now it is clear that Congress can lay the basis for our physical defense. It can assure us ships and planes and tanks. Our national executive can provide for the efficient and expeditious development of the army and navy. Industrial leaders and labor can

assure the production of the necessary materials. Our law enforcement agencies can search out subversive influences. But from what source will come leadership in cultivating and extending that common base of purpose, conviction, and determination upon which all of these rest for effective use? From where will our psychological and our moral defense arise?

When defense is viewed thus broadly an obvious requirement is the conviction that we have something worth defending. The will of a nation is directly related to the strength of this conviction. If we prize dearly common values which are now present in our living, we will stand together and sacrifice other things for their preservation. If we lack this concern, the seeds of social disintegration are present. In totalitarian states this conviction is simply arrived at. The people are told what to think. Goals and purposes are stated by the *fuehrer* and woe to those who do not accept them. In a democracy the process is by no means so simple but we hope and believe that the result is more permanent and more consistent with the welfare of all. We must rely on individual study, understanding, and appreciation arrived at through rational processes—in brief, on education.

This fact was recognized by our national leaders during that critical period following the Revolution when our national unity was being forged. It has been reiterated again and again since that time. The school, as democracy's chief educational agency, has recognized this fundamental responsibility. Statement after statement has been made by committees and individual educational leaders, in-

dicating that it is a primary responsibility of the school to assure to the citizen understanding and appreciation of democratic values and to provide experience in democratic practices. Yes, in theory the school has accepted this responsibility, but what of practice?

There has been through long years of educational development in large segments of our program an assumption, neither recognized nor clearly examined, that schooling automatically results in desired social outcomes. As a consequence the curriculum has been all too little influenced in either purpose, organization, or content by the fact that the school has been functioning as an agency of democracy. Academic significance, economic advantage, and social respectability have been dominant influences. Civic education in its broader implications has received great attention in speeches, but no broad scale curriculum modifications have been made to achieve the desired results. In actual study the past has crowded out the present, memorizing has overshadowed thinking, and facts have left too small a place for ideas. The result all too often has been that the ideas and values of democracy are associated with historic events, but are unrelated to actual living here and now. Freedom of speech and religion, freedom of the press, freedom of assembly, protection of person and other rights which have been hard won and remain almost alone to us are apt to be interpreted in terms of Magna Charta, the Reformation, and the Declaration of Independence rather than in terms of Union Square, the publication of the New Masses, the possibility of listening to any and all radio programs, the

opportunity to support freely either Willkie, Roosevelt, or Norman Thomas, freedom from the midnight knock of secret police, and absence of the concentration camp. These great values too often are taken for granted, held lightly because we have not known what life is without them. Those school systems, and there is an encouraging number of them, which are introducing realistic study of current problems, which are giving pupils firsthand experience in socially constructive work, which are using history directly as a means of enlightening present values and problems of living are contributing significantly to understanding that results in the conviction that democracy is worth preserving, whatever the cost.

But conservation of the values gained by the vision and struggle of our forefathers is not enough to provide the conviction needed for defense at this critical period. Values achieved in earlier times, however important, soon come to be accepted and commonplace. Inequalities, lack of opportunity, injustices loom large. The future, not the past, is the key to decisive action. There must be perceived in American democracy the promise of a better life in a nation marching forward to progressively greater achievements. We are willing to suffer hardships of the most rigorous sort if there is the conviction that we are moving on to something better. The mere preservation of the status quo has no vital challenge and affords no adequate drive to action. This applies particularly to youth. Youth seeks ideals to strive for; youth wants a cause; youth demands the opportunity to live and dare and go forward.

Now if American democracy cannot present an opportunity for continuous improvement of living, if we cannot offer the possibility of a future with greater promise than the present, however good the present may be, our shortages will loom larger and larger in the minds of our people. The question will be raised with increasing frequency: Does not some other form of social organization have greater promise than democracy? In France we are told on reliable authority that the recurrence of this question contributed to downfall.

The promise of American democracy is one of the greatest factors in a defense program. What is this promise? Will unemployment be decreased? Will inequalities due to the accident of birth be reduced? Will equality of educational opportunity be extended? Will minority rights receive greater consideration? Will youth find a real place of importance and significance in the world of work which will permit them to marry, to have homes, to develop a sense of worth? It is in failure to answer questions like these that the possibility of undermining our morale and conviction rests. At this time as never before we must see that democracy holds promise for the future. We must study possibilities. We must develop new and better solutions to problems extending across our entire range of national life. Democracy must not fold up under stress of defending itself.

In recent curriculum programs much attention has been turned to actual problems of living of broad personal and social significance. This has been done under the conviction that the school should contribute to improved living and should give stu-

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dents understanding and experience in the use of democratic procedures for solving problems. Such a curriculum, developed in full cooperation with other community agencies, can do much to contribute to the development of a better America and to the conviction on the part of youth that the potentialities of American democracy for improved living have by no means been exhausted. This type of curriculum work may wisely be extended as rapidly as possible.

In the period ahead there is need for the development of a great program of civic education, a program which centers on the needs which I have here discussed. The dictatorships have recognized the need for widespread popular conviction as the basis of their programs. They have devoted millions to building up an emotional background which will carry their peoples forward without question as to ends or means. Democracy faces a more difficult task. Catchwords and slogans, unthinking acceptance are inadequate. We must have conviction based on genuine understanding. There is much already being done on a scattered basis in outstanding American schools which points the way. The need is for more and more schools to

undertake similar work, to organize comprehensive programs. Such programs should extend from the elementary school through the high school and college and into adult groups. In this way a broad base of deep-seated conviction may be developed through the democratic process of individual study and group discussion. Upon such a base our defense for the trying years ahead may safely rest.

Two difficulties stand in the way of such a development. One is inadequate leadership and the other is inadequate finance. As a part of our national defense program steps should be taken under the direction of the United States Office of Education to mobilize local leadership throughout the nation in the organization of broad-scale civic education programs which strike at these needs. At the same time millions are being spent for ships and guns other millions should be made available by the Federal government to build this other vital aspect of our defense program. Nothing less than the most extended educational opportunities may be relied upon to combat the modern propaganda of streamlined dictatorships. For total war only total defense will suffice.



DEMOCRATIC APPROACH TO COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

By RALPH M. LYON
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THE UNDEMOCRATIC character of many of our agencies and institutions has not until lately been borne upon our consciousness, but it is now patent among students of society, at least, that our actions in everyday relationships are in considerable measure a denial of democratic principles. We know that parents have usually made decisions regarding all phases of family life, that the staff in some New York or Washington office has planned to the minutest detail the club program for Podunk, that social service groups follow rigid outlines which have been formulated by an outside expert, that business often operates upon the pattern of the plantation overlord, and that schools—frequently the worst offenders of all—have been veritable citadels of autocracy. Institutions are organized and run as an end in themselves rather than as a means of human growth and development. Few leaders practice the philosophy of the Great Teacher who remarked, when chided by sticklers for ceremony and tradition, that "the sabbath was made for man, and not man for the sabbath."

In fact, leadership is conceived as getting a following: the effective officer or chairman is one whose group carries out his program without question because they like or respect him. A dishonest or "loaded" conference method is employed by teachers and school officials in the name of democracy. And "planted speeches" take the place of genuine and spontaneous discussion and action upon the vital issues which affect a group. The no-

tion that democracy is not merely a matter of majority vote, but is a shared or pooled decision in which the best thinking and planning of all is considered has rarely been heard, much less practiced.

Obviously, democratic leaders must do more than give an opportunity for sanction. They must develop techniques for helping people who are timid, inexperienced, and dominated to take an active part in their common affairs. Those who are consciously trying to help democracy grow in this country must realize that the task demands leaders who will encourage, guide, urge, and "so set the stage" that all members will come to participate and will know that their opinions will be seriously considered. Few of us know much regarding the practice of democracy because we lack the knowledge of its essential characteristics and we have had such little experience in its application, but we can learn. And herein lies the fundamental task of education.

Four years ago a few educators in Greenville, South Carolina, saw some aspects of the theory that has been discussed. They conceived of bringing the people of the county together to identify their problems and to plan ways of solving them. This group of citizens became the Greenville County Council for Community Development. The resources of staff specialists and a college faculty were placed at the disposal of the people of the county. The General Education Board made a grant of \$80,000 which was supplemented by certain services from the

community. Federal and state agencies contributed substantial assistance in the fields of health and recreation. Later the county home demonstration agent and director of the county library assumed a staff relationship. Furman University, Greenville's co-educational liberal arts college, provided office space and gave liberally of faculty time from various departments, particularly from education, sociology, speech, and political science.

The educators not only saw that faculty members who participated in the program would have "live" materials for their courses, but they also conceived of the project as a laboratory where college students would get experience in seeing and participating in programs where democratic procedures were operating. Prospective ministers might learn to guide their young peoples' programs more effectively, student-teachers could see how the school and community cooperate in a program of functional education on all levels, future citizens would learn the philosophy and practice of the various social welfare agencies of a community, dramatics students could get practice in directing plays for rural people, etc.

In the beginning staff members and leaders, themselves groping for the proper democratic techniques, saw the program only "through a glass darkly." But certain principles in community development and group leadership have been evolved as they have worked together with club leaders, educators, city officials, businessmen, mill workers, farmers, and citizens from every walk of life. The first of these principles involves helping people to become aware of existing problems; second, getting them to help them-

selves rather than to look elsewhere for the solution of their difficulties; and third, increasing their sympathy with a larger circle of people.

The first principle, obtaining an awareness of existing problems, has been exemplified by small discussion groups which have faced basic problems in all the fields of life activity around the conference table. Plans for the solution of these problems, the second principle, have been formulated and carried out by the members of the conference groups. Committees on special problems have been organized, citizens having a general interest in county-wide problems have discussed the needs and planned programs, and councils have been set up in smaller geographical areas. The groups have recognized many needs and have in addition a rather creditable list of accomplishments to show. A broadened horizon and a concern for the problems of others come when farmers and wholesale grocers, professors and small-town merchants discuss such problems as poultry raising and distribution, a live-at-home program, or adequate health service in a friendly "give and take" around the table.

Five major approaches to county development are employed. First, committees of people concerned with county-wide or city-wide problems function in over-all planning. The social welfare committee has in three years established a council of social agencies, a confidential exchange, a family welfare bureau, a council of church women, and a free legal aid service. The education committee has made an extensive attack on reading retardation, has improved instruction in rural white and Negro schools, and is this year concerned with a pro-

gram of teacher training, both pre-service and in-service, in cooperation with the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. Poultry is being raised more extensively, an organized live-at-home campaign has been conducted, and a drive to obtain a marketing specialist is under way—all as a result of the deliberations of the farm income committee. There are also committees in the fields of health, recreation, and government.

Second, community councils have been organized to draw together the people of a geographical area and to help them work on common problems. Usually the high school district with its feeder areas becomes the council unit, although in some instances councils have been organized in elementary school communities. Each area has its own peculiar problems: school ground improvement, functioning of a farm cooperative, garbage disposal, public square beautification, etc. But several activities are common. The youngsters want more social life, and a number of youth clubs are meeting this need. Usually rural communities ask for better health facilities. A special grant from the Macy Foundation made possible adequate health service in three demonstration areas. The credit union idea is being advanced by enthusiasts from two successful organizations, and almost a dozen have been formed.

A third type of community development comes through the organization of new agencies. Probably the most spectacular activity of the Council is represented by the adult education institutes, which have usually taken the name of "Citizens Education Center." The unit in the city of Greenville

enrolled in its first year some fourteen hundred students. Four county units, as well as two Negro groups, have also been outstanding successes. Adults have studied for six weeks under lay and college leadership such topics as the following: what is happening in international affairs, how to beautify the home, minding your manners, how to make things with your hands, what is involved in building a home, how to write, and how to lead groups. Other new services include cooperatives, credit unions, a family welfare society, a legal aid clinic, a unit of Junior Entertainment, Inc., and a social service exchange.

A fourth approach to community development has been through the informal counseling of leaders of many diverse agencies, helping them to function more efficiently. It would be impossible to list the number of programs that have been planned over staff members' desks. A district president asked for help in thinking through the details of an annual meeting of her organization; a principal wanted advice regarding reading tests; two citizens asked that persons be brought together to listen to a member of the state planning board; a council needed a movie for a meeting and thought others would be interested in sharing the cost; a public health official requested the support of the Council in a public works project toward which politicians were lukewarm. A tremendous amount of time, both of the staff and of the Council's executive committee, is consumed in the performance of such services. This assistance to individuals, especially when it makes them less dependent on help the next time, is functional adult education at its best.

Another significant approach is through the education of college students. They make community studies and actively participate in the county program as a part of their work in sociology and education classes. Many are leading scout troops, directing plays, teaching sewing at the Negro center, and studying and participating in school activities under the guidance of college teachers. A small graduate department which awards the master of arts degree is organized exclusively around the community development program. This year one student is taking advanced work that will more adequately fit her for county home demonstration work, and another is preparing for leadership in rural dramatics. Several school men, who are master's candidates, have been studying community problems as an entering wedge in reorienting rural school curricula. Practice teaching and field experiences for prospective teachers are related to the programs of a famous progressive system, a rural school, and a city system. These schools, as well as the others of the county, are cooperating in a national program of in-service teacher training and serve as centers for pre-service experiences.

It is likely that the training of leaders in the regular college courses, as well as through the summer school, institutes, conferences, and the graduate department, will become the most far-reaching aspect of the program.

Almost every community that is active has in it teachers who have gained inspiration in courses emphasizing the community approach to educational and social problems at Furman. They can interpret new activities and in some places become "spark plugs" that rouse their communities to action.

The Greenville County Council for Community Development has not been in existence long enough to "prove" anything. And its consultant, Professor Edmund deS. Brunner, has warned many times that it will not be thoroughly tested until the sixth and later years show the benefits that continue without outside help. But certain conclusions are already apparent. Community development is an expensive process, costly in the gasoline that seeing people and holding meetings consume, costly in the time of leaders. It requires skill in handling people, a social intelligence, a sense of humor, and a driving conviction—traits that must be developed by a type of education that has been lacking in our formal schooling of the past. It can operate effectively only when preachers and farmers, agriculture teachers and principals, librarians, county agents, and all other community leaders are willing to forget differences and work together on common problems. And it is slow. Folks do not clamber out of ruts easily, nor do they learn to work together overnight.



A TEACHERS COLLEGE STUDIES ITS ENVIRONMENT

By CYRIL W. GRACE
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THE PROBLEM of rural reconstruction in the United States is essentially an economic one, though vital, spiritual attitudes underlie any progressive activity. The general social problem may be solved only through the improvement of primary economic conditions. That the United States has reached an all-time low point in rural misery, poverty, unemployment and rural slums is obvious to the most casual observer. Migration no longer alleviates the trouble, but aggravates the general social and economic problem.

If rural reconstruction is essentially a problem of economics, all agencies must devote themselves to improving the economic situation of rural areas. That is to say, business generally, the various professions, banking, labor, and education must all take an equal interest in restoring economic democracy among the inhabitants of rural America. Certainly education and, particularly, the teacher-training institutions will be less effective without the co-operative assistance of other agencies. But in so far as the teacher-training institution can train its teachers to be more effective in the rural areas that it serves, it should contribute accordingly. Surely no one will deny that some possibilities of rural reconstruction lie within the power of the teacher-training institution.

We at the State Teachers College at Mayville believe that many of our children of the coming generations must find a way of life in their own community. That the present resources offer many opportunities for improve-

ment is apparent. In the coming years with improvement of basic agricultural resources, the creative minds of each community will undertake the further development of these resources through the processing of raw materials and in the development of co-operative ventures. The small villages and open country will then offer increasing opportunities for many of our youth.

In order to make a beginning in this direction, we have been instructing our prospective teachers to teach children the vital facts pertaining to their own environment. Space does not permit elaborate description, but suffice it to say that patrons are now coming to our rural school teachers and expressing their gratification with the type of instructional materials being used in the elementary experimental schools. In all probability this attitude on the part of the patrons will result in increased tenure and salary for the teacher. The whole experiment seems to be resulting in a spiritual uplift on the part of the patron, who rightly feels that as long as he pays for the upkeep of the school, the principles and philosophy of that school should lead to the upbuilding of community institutions, the home, church, and promote the general community welfare.

The materials that may be devised by a college faculty, student body, teacher in training, teacher in service, or the adult public, are just as numerous as the ingenuity of the human mind. However, if the whole problem is not unified by a basic philosophy,

the general result will remain as it has been heretofore with scattered efforts and multiplied problems.

The beginnings were made in the president's weekly convocation, which for more than a year and a half has been devoted to discussions and lectures pertaining to the vital problems of the area. It has been through the media of the convocation that a high degree of student interest has been maintained until at the present a progressive philosophy is a topic for discussion in the everyday lives of our students. This spirit is after all the true patriotism, and those who are imbued with these true emotions will rank high in the leadership of the community in which they elect to teach.

Emphasis has been placed upon the short courses, subject coordination, practice teaching, teacher institutes, institutional bulletins, meetings of groups of farmers and meetings with local units of farm organizations.

By carrying the same message and philosophy to these and many other groups, common recognition of the place that the teacher-training institution may play in the development of rural America has been established. We are exploring the field and learning as we go. We see many opportunities for our services, and we see many opportunities for other groups to engage in this common democratic interest.

Coordination within the faculty has been brought about without compulsion. Starting with general explanations to individual faculty members, the first committee on general conservation came into existence. It should be stressed that the beginnings in our region must necessarily be with the soil, for that is the source of most of

our wealth. The committee itself was interesting, for it combined the elements of the liberal arts side of the faculty with the educational. This was quite an attainment. Today, however, the science men of this committee may be found in their spare hours diligently working with pupils in the elementary rural schools, finding great pleasure in developing new and interesting material for the little ones, and they themselves enjoying the experience of getting down to the level of those they had never known. So from the blending of the elements of this one committee the beginnings were made.

Following the success of this committee, various other departments began to exhibit a live interest which has led to the formation of several other important committees with prospects of excellent production. Several individuals are making valuable contributions. To date the majority of the committees are concerning themselves with the primary problem; namely, physical geography, soils, and conservation.

The resources of the various departments are directed generally toward one of the vital problems facing society in this area. The music department is developing songs and cantatas pertaining to the same problems. The science department is working cooperatively with the department of education in the development of materials designed to train and interest the child from grades one to twelve in his home community. In literature, a movement is on foot to teach North Dakota children something about the Sir Launcelots that North Dakota has produced. In arithmetic, the trend is toward teaching the subject in terms

of the environment—measurements of fields, haystacks, binned grain, feed requirements, and so on. The art department trains teachers to teach children to draw and paint pictures of the community as it is and as it might be. For instance, it is not unusual to find a prospective teacher studying and making pictures of contour farming. It is naturally taken for granted that the art department or any other department is not solely interested in the one subject of conservation, but the fact that it deals with the child's own environment is vital.

The library has developed a unique circulating package library. The present facilities of this library system are not adequate to meet the demand of rural readers, anxious to read and learn, but heretofore without the resources. Much of the material that goes out from the library pertains to the subject of environment and the possibilities of development along social and economic lines.

A public forums committee is busy developing patterns for the embryo teacher to use in the community in connection with community organization programs. We all know that the beginning teacher probably is not ready to assume platform leadership because of her youth. But with patterns set up by the forums committee, she will know how to interest the natural leaders of the community in such a fashion as to stimulate progress. Furthermore, she will know where vast sources of material may be obtained to assist their effort.

A social science committee is in the process of formation and it is expected that it will make valuable contributions to the general pattern.

These are a sampling of activities from within the college. No attempt has been made to revolutionize the curriculum or to upset the established procedure. Short courses have been brought into the college, and the stimulus from them has resulted in splendid interest on the part of the student body and faculty, in the problems of the area, and how to solve them. It is indeed interesting to find 100 sophomores and seniors gathered in the late afternoon listening to a lecture on moisture conservation, for instance. This group is the majority of the enrollment in these two classes at this small college.

Change does not necessarily come nor can it be manifested in catalogues. Change is largely a matter of human interest and direction. Certainly the campus at the State Teachers College is teeming with aggressive American thinking, which is bound to be beneficial to this area over a period of years.

Since the community which we serve is rural, it would seem that the philosophy of our college should be rural. Whether the teacher is trained to work in the small town or village schools or in the open country, the general direction of our work should carry the rural implication. Education, then, of rural youth must be of a type designed to challenge them to engage in the upbuilding of these areas. This is the challenge, then, to elementary and secondary education in rural America. It is especially a challenge to the teacher-training institutions, for, after all, if they develop the proper type of teacher, it must follow that the proper type of education is most likely the result.

AN EXPERIENCE CURRICULUM FOR YOUNG CHILDREN

By RUTH ANDRUS

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TODAY CHILDREN are living in a world which is increasingly vivid and stimulating. Not only is their community more accessible to them, but far-off states and nations become a reality because of modern inventions such as the movies and the radio. Because of this speeded-up and stimulating living, children themselves are different; they seem more sensitive and are responding to the great variety of influences to which they are exposed.

To aid these children to understand and live as children in this stimulating world so full of conflicts and confusions is the task of the teachers in the modern school. "Task" is the wrong word to use. To the teacher alive to the possibilities of this kind of educational experience, "adventure" is more appropriate. The teacher's job is no longer the simple one of making a lesson plan to teach Betty and Jimmy the subjects listed in the course of study. Today she should know the children with whom she works as individual *live* boys and girls; she needs more information than her sister of yesterday and also more varied sources of information to which she and the children may go to find the answers to their many questions about the world in which they live.

These teachers and children will not develop a curriculum consisting of subject matter to be learned, but a curriculum which derives its content from the needs and interests of the children and from the culture¹ of the

world about them. For these reasons *curriculum* is understood to include all the experiences provided by the environment, and used by the school to guide children's growth and development. The aims of the curriculum to be worked out by teacher and children together should be to aid children to develop as: (1) children who are friendly and whom others like; (2) children who are active both in thinking and doing; (3) children who understand how to work in groups; (4) children who are aware of the rights and interests of other groups; (5) children who can solve problems; (6) children who can make mistakes and still go on solving problems; (7) children who from firsthand contacts grow in understanding of the world about them.

A great deal has been written about growth as the aim of education. In fact, so much emphasis has been laid upon growth that there is danger that growth will become an end in itself just as the three R's were yesterday. In our anxiety to prove that children are growing we are in danger of hindering the growth process just as we hindered the growth of radishes and beans whose roots we were so curious about when we were children. Real growth may be slow and not readily discerned over short periods of time.

There is danger, too, that growth will be expected in terms of adult standards and purposes and not in accordance with the interests and purposes of children. Many schools which

¹Culture is used here as including all the folk-ways of the people and their moods, their attitudes, and their points of view.

are careful to use methods derived from the modern psychology of learning use these methods to enforce their own will upon the children just as relentlessly as the most authoritarian of teachers did yesterday. While the method of learning is important, the purposes of learning are much more important. It is very easy to say the curriculums should spring from the interests of children, but not so easy to choose among those interests after they are discovered. It is, therefore, very necessary for those who are developing curriculums to rethink the education of children in terms of our present culture.

It is well to remember that each child grows at his own rate and that even the same child grows at different rates so far as his different capacities and abilities are concerned. In addition, there is a wide range of individual difference in interests and capacities in any group of children. These individual differences are due to two factors, constitutional differences and environmental or opportunity differences.

Although there is this wide range of individual differences, from research and recorded observation it is evident that certain major behavior trends are characteristic of each age level. It is true, however, that if a particular stimulus has been lacking in the child's environment at an earlier age level, if this stimulus is presented at a later age, the child will behave in a so-called immature manner, but in general this immature behavior continues for only a brief period. For example, a child whose first introduction to the use of paints occurs when he is six or seven goes through the same stages of covering sheets of papers

with different colors, making crude square designs, trees, houses, and flowers as do children who begin to use paints at an earlier age, but because of his increased motor coordination he gains comparable skill in a shorter time.

Since a child's chronological age represents in general a certain amount of experience, age grouping instead of grade placement according to subject matter or mental age is advocated. Mental age alone as a basis for grouping is not adequate in any scheme of education which aims at the development of the child's total personality. When groups are classified by chronological age,² the range of achievement according to standard tests is better cared for than when groups are classified by grades. Since the range of achievement is wide even in this method of grouping, a varied and enriched curriculum is necessary to meet the range of individual differences and subject matter should not be used as the basis for promotion. Since growth in children is irregular, it is advisable to consider the age from six through eight (Grades I through III) as a single unit from the administrative point of view. This division between Grades III and IV or between the eight- and nine-year-old children is not inevitable and should not make for any feeling of cleavage between one period and the next in children's educational progress.

Many questions related to the grouping of children of these age levels and their progress throughout this early childhood education period have been raised by teachers and supervisors in

²Cornell, Ethel L. *The Variability of Children of Different Ages and Its Relation to School Classification and Grouping*. Educational Research Studies. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York Press. 1937. pp. 7-13, 39-45.

the field. These questions merit more detailed treatment than is possible in this bulletin. Since, however, each group of teachers and supervisors will need to solve these problems for their own situations, the discussion which follows may be considered suggestive.

There is no conflict here. The apparent conflict arises from our habit of considering the curriculum as a given body of information and skills, as subject matter to be learned rather than as the meeting ground of the child's needs and interests and those of the society in which he lives. The present age is often called "The Age of Science." The scientific basis of our present culture has evolved because of the development in language and mathematics which took place in the late Middle Ages and early modern times. Any understanding of contemporary culture is impossible without an understanding of words and figures as symbols. Reading and mathematics, science and all the information (and more) included in social studies are part of the subject matter to be acquired in that "continuous remaking of life" which Kilpatrick calls education. In addition, all that the child is and does is to be considered subject matter in these modern curriculums: his life at home, at school, and in the community; all that he thinks and feels as well as the activities and opinions of the grown-ups constitute curriculum content if the development of the whole child and his understanding of the world about him are the aims of education.

The three R's then are no longer to be considered as "tool" subjects, but rather as literature, record making, and mathematics which are a vital part of our culture. Skill in understanding

and using these subjects is to be acquired as skill in any other phase of the curriculum; that is, by continuous and purposeful use. This means that so-called drill becomes a necessary and inherent part of the curriculum and not a period to be carried on without regard to the requirements of the individual children.

The statement has been made that not only children's needs and interests should provide curriculum content, but the second determiner and one of equal importance is the group culture. It goes without saying that children cannot experience all phases and facts in contemporary culture. What are the essentials which the teachers should include in any curriculum which the children and they develop? It is probable that every expert in every field would differ from every other on this point and none of them would agree with the average citizen. While joint parent and teacher discussion on the essentials in our culture to be included in the curriculum would doubtless be difficult at first, it is entirely possible that in no other way could such constructive help be secured and more effective home-school relationships established. Not only should teachers and parents work together to determine the essentials of culture to be included in any curriculum, but teachers of children of similar ages should develop such essentials together. In a similar way teachers in one school may work together in order that purposeless repetition may be obviated and continuity of learning may take place.

Since experience in democratic living within the school is an essential part of any curriculum whose aim is the understanding of relations and ability to act in a democratic society,

any formal ability grouping is to be questioned. If, however, the principle of individual differences in ability and rate of growth is to be given due consideration, it is necessary to plan for some kind of grouping of individuals of similar ability within the chronological age groups. Since children do not show the same degree of development along all lines, groups should be formed along many different lines. For example, within any one class the same child may work with the fast-moving group in reading and with the slow group in arithmetic. Teachers who have real understanding of children also know that the personnel in these different groups in the class is constantly changing. Social groupings³ among children form themselves more or less spontaneously and naturally. It is entirely possible that if other groupings within the classroom could be formed somewhat along the lines of the social groupings, the children would be happier and so do better work.⁴ For all these reasons, formal inflexible ability grouping is inadvisable.

³Moreno, J. R. Who Shall Survive? Nervous and Mental Disease Monograph Series Number 58. Washington, D. C.: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Company, 1934.

⁴Unpublished research of R. Eichenberg, reported at 1938 meeting of Ortho-Psychiatric Association and commented on by Goodwin Watson, Journal of Consulting Psychology, May-June, 1938, p. 84.

To many educationists the words *plan* and *continuity* are of doubtful value when applied to curriculums. Indeed, some contend that curriculums which derive their content from children's needs and interests cannot be planned. These same people state that it is undesirable to discuss continuity in relation to children's experiences within a single school year or from year to year. There is no doubt that it is very difficult to discuss planning and continuity because the very words which are used tend to crystallize the ideas. It is, however, necessary to remember that the culture of the world in which we live also contributes to the content of these curriculums and the responsibility for selecting the essentials to meet the needs and interests of the children rests with the teacher. This selection is also influenced by the immediate environment. If the teacher does not have this responsibility for guiding the developing of the curriculum, then the teaching situation and the teacher-pupil relation will not provide opportunity for growth for her. Ideally, planning and continuity are by-products of the teacher's understanding of the children in her group and of the world in which she lives.



THE ARTS PROGRAM AT CRANBROOK SCHOOL

By LLOYD L. WAITE

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FOR THE PAST decade the arts program at Cranbrook School has been in a state of flux. It still is. This can be attributed in part to the influence of certain men who have had charge of the work; to the demands placed upon the department by the student body; and to the arts emphasis or lack of emphasis embodied in the total school program as reflected by the faculty at large in its effort to provide an educational experience in keeping with the best interests of each individual boy.

At the outset of the more recent developments, a situation existed, in terms of student participation, which was the direct result of so-called "academic scheduling." All academic work was scheduled first, and the arts, including mechanical drawing, had the questionable privilege of accepting the remainder of the students' time after appropriate study hall periods had been deducted. This kind of arts emphasis gave grades seven, eight, and nine scheduled opportunity to work in the arts for two double periods each week in large homogeneous sections. However, the program under that arrangement seemed to have at least two major defects: (1) the scheduled hours came late in the afternoon at a time when the senior high school group was having athletics which caused much unrest among the junior high group; and (2) the double period seemed to tax the interest span of many of the younger boys, especially the seventh grade group.

Mechanical drawing classes during this same period were built around the

idea that exposure to and participation in the language of the engineer and designer would be beneficial to those boys interested in the field of engineering. In practice, the sections were very often composed of students who had failed to make the academic grade in language or science and needed a credit for graduation rather than students of good caliber who could profit from the work as precollege or vocational training. This kind of scheduling resulted in an ultraheterogeneous group both in terms of interest and ability.

The work in fine arts shared the schedule with industrial arts; i. e., two periods per week in the shop, two in the fine arts laboratory, for the scheduled students. Most of the students in the junior high sections disliked the fine arts offering due, in the main, to a kind of program they had been subjected to in previous years; i. e., the formal study of color by making a color wheel, the rather limited possibilities for individual effort, etc.

On the senior high school level, the work was purely elective, exclusive of mechanical drawing. Students had opportunity to work in the arts area provided their academic schedule was not too full, and if the small amount of work they attempted did not interfere with scheduled academic obligations. The result of this is obvious. Only a few boys of unusual ability in subject matter fields or the converse were permitted to work in the arts area.

This very brief word picture of a situation is not complimentary, but,

at the same time, it is not unusual in many schools. The problem seemed to have three phases: making the arts a part of, rather than something apart from, the total educational picture; the arrangement of individual schedules so that increased participation in the arts could be enjoyed by an ever-widening group of students; helping students to realize the worth of an arts experience language for the interpretation of ideas and ideals.

In an effort to gain some idea of the amount of interest among the student body in the arts, a standard interest inventory was administered to the entire school. The results of this inventory showed a persistent and comparatively equal interest in the arts throughout the six grades represented in the school. It was not a very difficult task to present the findings of the survey to the faculty which agreed to make several adjustments in the program. The junior high school students now have their arts work in single periods during the regular school day rather than late in the afternoon. The senior high school students are enrolled in many instances for the work in both fine and industrial arts on a college entrance credit basis. The mechanical drawing courses are no longer dumping grounds for academic misfits and all students have the privilege of signing out from the study hall to work in the arts laboratories at any period during the day provided that their other responsibilities do not suffer from such action.

These changes are significant because they mark a general shift in emphasis throughout the school with respect to the question: "What constitutes general education on the secondary level for the individual student?"

Curriculum reorganization involves much more than just the physical shifting of student sections or the addition or removal of course offerings. The re-thinking of the total program seems to be the first step in providing more adequate opportunities for the development of the individual student embracing a re-evaluation of many questions, not the least of which are the nature of the learning process and how can the school program be best individuated to meet the needs of each student.

At the opening of the second year the improvements included a new general shop laboratory equipped to solve a wide range of problems in wood, metal, and ceramics; an increased staff and a student enrollment of approximately two-thirds of the entire student body. The arts teachers agreed to put the program on an individual basis in all grades and in all fields of endeavor; to accept student enrollment for any given period regardless of past experience or grade standing; to assist students to achieve orientation in the several media of expression through interest channels rather than on a sequential course basis; to recognize that appreciation of the arts is not the same as skill in the arts, but that both have one thing in common, namely, experience and familiarity with materials; to allow students to elect to work in one or both laboratories as their interests and problems dictate; to encourage originality and freedom of expression; to assist students in an understanding of our complex technological environment through experience with materials and methods appropriate to the problems under consideration; to recognize the experimental approach to

problem solving as a valid and worthwhile method of learning; and, from the standpoint of instruction, to conduct the laboratory program so that an atmosphere of friendly guidance and counseling would exist rather than one of dogmatism and authority.

At the outset of the program some difficulties arose in the minds of the faculty and certainly in the behavior of the students, for, in the main, the program was new and many mistakes were made in scheduling students and in asking students to accept too much responsibility in connection with their work. In addition to these factors, the expanded laboratory facilities presented many new and interesting problems in terms of physical and instructional organization. These problems cannot be called peculiar to this situation, for without doubt they exist and have existed in similar situations.

As this program has developed over a short period of time, several interesting and seemingly significant results have been realized. The work in the junior high school area has increased in student participation from some sixty-five per cent of the pupils of this division to approximately ninety-five per cent. On the basis of free election of projects or problems most students in the seventh and eighth grades have chosen to work in the industrial arts area and have found the fine arts laboratory interesting and stimulating to an increasing degree on the ninth grade level. The wide range of individual problems attempted among the group over a period of three years seems to indicate that it is not necessary to rotate students through various areas in order to achieve an orientation to the several media of expression. That students acquire the basic skills and

techniques appropriate to the solution of problems dealing with materials is evident to an increasing degree as students progress from the seventh through the ninth grade. From observation it appears evident that this kind of program is conducive to the development of desirable personal-social traits. There is a complete absence of acute discipline problems, and a fine *esprit de corps* exists among the student body.

The work in mechanical drawing on the senior high level has been individualized. A student may work at his own speed and after the completion of basic work may pursue whatever special interests he may have in the field—architecture, machine design, industrial design, etc. The success of this venture may be measured to some extent by the fact that a considerable number of boys, after completing the first year of work, elect to continue in this field for a second or third year. As a result of this interest in graphic representation, the second- and third-year students are encouraged to design, make suitable working drawings, and then actually execute their ideas in materials on a mature and highly skilled basis. The problems in the main start on the drafting table and are completed in the shop, but between the origin of the idea and the finished product flows a rather unusual student-teacher relationship. The student uses the faculty as consultants rather than authorities on his problems; he engages in much serious and detailed planning, attempts experiment, and finally, after having collected sufficient data, proceeds to solve his problem. This type of program seems to have much meaning for students interested in the gen-

eral field of engineering, industrial design, and mechanics. They have opportunity to become skilled in the language of the field, to have firsthand experience with problems of construction and materials. The realization comes to the student that to be an engineer or designer one must know not only the technique of presenting a fine drawing, but also the practical application of materials to that design.

The work in the so-called fine arts on the senior high school level is highly diversified in terms of materials used and problems attempted. At the same time, it is individual in nature to the extent that each student selects his own problems and proceeds to carry them to completion. It is interesting to note at this juncture that the number of students working in the arts area from the senior high school has increased thirty-five per cent over the former type of program. The offering as now established seems to reach the interest needs of the students so that they feel free to paint, draw, model in clay, carve in wood, design, and execute problems in silver, etc., in an unhurried and comfortable environment.

The total program, from a casual observer's point of view, seems rather random in approach. Areas are not clearly defined: courses in design seem

to merge into construction problems using materials and machines, a student paints in oil, models in clay, and carves in wood with a freedom and ease that is quite unusual. Students from several grade levels work in the laboratories at the same time, the problems ranging from those of a very simple nature to highly complex and technical processes. Scenery for a school play is constructed by a group of students in one corner of the laboratory, while boats are being built and automobiles overhauled within the same area. Students and instructors from other areas use the laboratories as problems arise. Beginning with interest and curiosity the student works with materials, using books and discussion only as they are needed to clarify or interpret a situation or problem.

Closer observation for a longer period of time reveals the rather interesting point of view that here is a group of secondary schoolboys who are having an arts experience which to them has vitality and meaning in a very real sense. They learn to appreciate a fine piece of pottery or a painting through having had contact with the media in a concrete way. They learn to recognize and enjoy good design through their attempts to solve their problems satisfactorily.



PREPARING A SCHEDULE FOR COMPREHENSIVE EVALUATION¹

By HUGH B. WOOD

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PROBABLY the most important phase in the development of a comprehensive program of evaluation is the determination of the objectives to be measured. Secondary in importance only to this is the description of these objectives in terms of characteristic or typical pupil behavior. Recent changes in the curriculum, brought about by attempts to satisfy some of the newer educational needs of boys and girls today, have given rise to many *new* curricular objectives. This, in turn, has created a demand for new tests and measuring devices. However, before the educator can select or develop—as the occasion demands—a test or device to measure the degree of achievement of a given objective, he must first have a clear statement of that objective in terms of pupil behavior at a given grade or maturity level.

Numerous attempts have been made to classify the objectives of education. The evaluator usually accepts quite willingly the general aims of education such as "the development of integrated individuals," or "the development of effective citizens," but his task is concerned more specifically with the identification of the various aspects or phases of education that help to develop the "integrated individual" or "effective citizen." He finds it necessary, for example, to set up certain *norms of achievement* in mathematics or social studies and

standards of conduct when dealing with social or emotional behavior. For this reason, one of the first things he must do is to state in rather specific terms the objectives which he wishes to measure or evaluate.

The thirty schools of the Progressive Education Association Experimental Study have classified their objectives under five heads: skills, understandings and appreciations, interests, good thinking, and social maturity;² while Raths uses a tenfold classification: thinking, interests, attitudes, social adjustment, creativeness, study skills and work habits, informations, appreciations, social sensitivity, and a functional philosophy of life.³ Wrightstone employed three categories on one occasion: intellectual, dynamic, and performance factors;⁴ and six on another: social relationships, aptitudes, critical thinking, worth-while activities, knowledge and skills, and sound physical and mental health.⁵ Still another classification is based on nine categories: basic skills, techniques, and abilities; basic understandings and informations, generalizations, and con-

¹Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Experiment. "The Objectives of the Thirty Schools." Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1935. 20 pp. (Mimeo.)

²Raths, Louis. "Basis for Comprehensive Evaluation." Educational Research Bulletin (OSU), 15: 220-24, November 11, 1936; and "Appraising Certain Aspects of Student Achievement." In Guidance in Educational Institutions, 37th Yearbook, N. S. S. E. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. P. 90.

³Wrightstone, J. W. "Appraisal of Newer Practices in Selected Public Schools." New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935, pp 4-5.

⁴Wrightstone, J. W. "Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices." New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. p. 120.

¹This is the third of a series of articles on evaluation by the author appearing in the Curriculum Journal. Other articles appeared in March, 1937, and December, 1937.

cepts; intellectual traits; personal traits; social traits; appreciations, attitudes, and ideals; emotional traits; interests; and physical characteristics.⁶ There are many other classifications,⁷ but each, at best, is more or less an arbitrary one.

Regardless of the organization used, these specific objectives must be broken down into statements of normal achievement or descriptions of typical pupil behavior at different maturation levels. For example, initiative and responsibility, like academic achievement and physical growth, vary with the degree of maturation of the individual. Before we can measure any specific aspect of organismic growth we must define it in terms of the maturity of the individual. Just as we can say that a *normal* child entering the period, say, of adolescence, will probably be able to read with a certain degree of rapidity and comprehension, so can we say that the *normal* child will probably have certain physical, mental, emotional, and social characteristics at this age. It should be remembered, however, that we can only set up standards of typical behavior or achievement; we must not expect every child to conform to these averages.

⁶Wood, Hugh B. "Evaluation of Pupils' Work." In "Criteria for Evaluating Course-of-Study Materials," by Herbert Bruner. Teachers College Record, 39: 116-18. November, 1937.

"Some of these include: (a) Initiative, work-spirit, reliability, cooperation, courtesy, worthy group-membership, and good housekeeping. Pistor, F. "Measuring Some Subtle Values of Progressive Education." Educational Method, 14: 119-120. December, 1934. (b) Problem solving, acquisition of knowledge, acquisition of skill, social competence, creative ability, and aesthetic experiencing. Uhl, W. L. "Some Neglected Aspects of Educational Measurement." Journal of Educational Research, 27: 241-6. December, 1933. (c) Responsibility, dependency, creativity and imagination, influence, inquiring mind, open-mindedness, and power and habit of analysis. Smith, E. R. "The Work of the Committee on Reports and Records." Progressive Education, 12: 441-45. November, 1935.

The *average* person is usually quite "un-average"; i. e., he is above the norm in some respects and below in others.

Several groups of college students and classroom teachers, working under the direction of the writer recently attempted to (a) state the general objective(s) of education, (b) break this down into specific objectives, (c) classify these, (d) define the major levels of maturity with which the public school is concerned, and (e) describe typical behavior or normal achievement for each specific objective at each maturity level.

The five maturity levels selected were used merely as a basis of standards or norms for what seem to be more or less natural divisions in the present school system. These standards might conceivably be used as a basis of promotion from one division to the next. They were defined approximately as follows:

I. The maturation level at which the average child is ready to enter an organized system of education, usually at the chronological age of five or six. At this age children may be weaned from the home and begin to benefit by the social contacts of the primary school.

II. The maturation level at which the average child is ready to begin a formal program of reading, writing, and arithmetic, usually at the chronological age of eight or nine. Recent experiments and discoveries indicate that the mental development of the average child prohibits effective teaching in the abstract much earlier than this age. Readiness for abstract reading and arithmetic should play an important part in determining when a

child should enter the intermediate school.

III. The maturation level at which the individual enters the first stage of adolescence, usually about age twelve to fourteen, chronologically. By this time the pupil should have an elementary command of the fundamental processes and should exhibit expanding interests, desire for exploring new fields, and curiosity, initiative, and inventiveness in ever-increasing degree.

IV. The maturation level at which the early period of adolescence nears its close and the individual no longer "seems but a child"—the "sub-deb" age, when young manhood and womanhood begin to emerge and traces of childishness disappear—usually about age sixteen to eighteen, chronologically. At this period the individual should be considering seriously the future and will in many instances be ready to select a field of specialization for the last years of high school or for college. Deep friendship with the opposite sex is, of course, usually much in evidence at this age.

V. The maturation level at which the average individual usually reaches adulthood, varying often from eighteen to twenty-two or older with many individuals.

Using these five maturation levels, members of the groups attempted to set up descriptive behavior or standards of achievement for the various objectives at the several levels. Such a chart, when completed in detail, would be of extreme dimensions, and if printed in a book would take up many pages. It would, however, provide a key to the selection or development of tests or other measuring devices needed to determine the degree of achievement in a given area. Many of these objectives could be measured best by newer techniques such as rating scales, anecdotal records, questionnaires, directed observation, and personal interviews, in addition to the older forms of evaluation.

While the chart is not complete, the illustrations indicate the techniques employed and suggest a procedure for teachers and administrators to follow. The average educator could not be expected to develop such a chart alone, but a committee on evaluation in a given school system might well undertake the task.⁸

⁸F. C. Ayer has followed similar procedures in constructing a chart showing "The Outstanding Characteristics of Educational Periodicity," appearing in the April, 1936, Texas Curriculum News Bulletin.



SHORT ARTICLES

PENNSYLVANIA STUDIES THE NON-COLLEGE PUPIL

By Oscar Granger

Principal, Haverford Township Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania

THE HIGH SCHOOLS of Pennsylvania, like all American high schools, are experiencing the confusion of re-organizing themselves from selective secondary schools to universal ones. The American high school has been invaded by all youth who, now in our new order of things, must pass through this institution to reach certain desired goals. These desired goals in some instances may not be clearly defined in the minds of youth, but there still exists in the faith and thinking of parents and other adult groups the belief that in some way education leads to success and that here in America all youth have the right to share in it.

This faith in a high school education on the part of our public has been accepted as a challenge to schoolmen in Pennsylvania, and an attempt is being made to build a program of activities in and about the school which will lend a helping hand to all youth who must ultimately make their own way in our complex society.

These schoolmen reasoned that many boys and girls now leaving high school are equipped to do their next job because of satisfactory reports from colleges and certain technical fields, where, as graduates, they find employment, and consequently that group which constitutes about fifty per cent could be disregarded in the consideration of the pressing problems involved in providing proper education for the other fifty per cent—those who do not go

on to college or into technical employment.

The problem seemed to be to build courses for high school that would challenge and control the interests of this latter group. To dilute the program that had proved satisfactory for the "college bound" pupil had not proved to be the answer. It seemed that a new series of high-school subjects must be developed that would have color, dignity, and real meat which would give this new school population valuable training for their present and future needs.

With the passage of a compulsory school attendance law in 1937 the Pennsylvania State Principals' Association appointed a state committee to outline a program of action that would set many teachers and administrators to work on their local problems. The first move was a state conference consisting of representatives of school people, lay groups, and secondary-school pupils in Harrisburg. As a result of this conference it was clearly evident to the committee that secondary education needed revitalizing in the minds of all these groups and that a vigorous program should be promoted to find and use new curriculum materials.

To do this work the State Committee set up eleven committees in the following curriculum areas: community resources; extracurricular; guidance; home economics; languages; interest units; mathematics; manual arts; reading; social science; science. The state was divided into nine regions because of its size and a committee was appointed in each region so that

in all there were ninety-nine committees originally established with a state chairman and nine subchairmen, one in each of the eleven curriculum areas. Some of these subcommittees did little or no work, but many have been meeting regularly and have been influencing practice toward the goals set by the state committee. The main purpose of the large number of committees was to make all schools see that they would have to work on the problem and that no one committee, school, or state officer could publish a course that would solve every school's local problem.

In October, 1939, the program was refined and three major centers known as Service Centers were established—one at the University of Pittsburgh for the western groups of the state; one at Pennsylvania State College for the central groups; and one at the University of Pennsylvania for the eastern groups. The center at the University of Pennsylvania is typical of the others. The University provides room, a director, who is a member of the faculty, secretarial assistance, library facilities, and graduate assistants to help the committee that meets regularly every two weeks to promote its curriculum studies.

Some of the committee members are working for degrees in various departments of the University, and find the college teachers quite willing to recognize the problems of the Service Center as an opportunity to vitalize their courses. Also college teachers who have had no contact with real public school problems are being brought in to help. This has happened in the field of science, language, and community resources to the great advantage of the public schools and the University. The

Service Center plan set up for these three centers will, the committee hopes, extend to every teacher-training school in the state so that there will soon be many similar service centers where teachers and administrators in local areas can use the college and its facilities as a Center where they meet regularly to exchange experiences, hear about new educational findings and in general partake in a real program of implementation.

SUBJECT TEACHERS PLAN A UNIFIED CURRICULUM

By John J. De Boer
Chicago Teachers College

IT HAS BEEN frequently said that a major obstacle to curriculum reorganization on the secondary level is the existence of numerous vested interests as represented by special subject teachers. It is pointed out that so long as the attention of a teacher is fixed upon the mastery of a specialized subject field, he will be relatively indifferent to the current personal and social needs of the learner. Certainly the starting point in curriculum planning should be the personality of the learner, not a body of facts and skills accumulated over a long period of time, without specific reference to the human beings expected to master them.

National organizations of subject teachers have therefore been recorded as powerful agencies for the maintenance of a subject centered curriculum. The National Council of Teachers of English, for example, is thought by some, including perhaps members of the organization itself, to exist for the purpose of defending English as a subject in the curriculum and main-

taining the relative proportion of time awarded to English in a school program. In the case of some other organizations there is a suspicion that teachers in these fields have banded themselves together in order to prevent the disappearing of their subjects from the curriculum entirely. And it cannot be denied that in some instances a fear that the "integrated curriculum" will result in the loss of jobs for some teachers in specialized subjects has created opposition to the newer curriculum developments.

In view of these considerations, the formation of the National Commission on Cooperative Curriculum Planning may be regarded as an event of major importance in the history of American education. Nearly all the fields represented in the American secondary school have spokesmen on the Commission. At its very first meeting, in Detroit, February, 1939, it was evident that all these teachers, officially selected by their organizations, had come prepared to study the secondary school curriculum earnestly and honestly in order to determine what kind of program would be needed to serve best the interests of the young people in school and of the society which maintains the school. Only secondarily were they concerned with the question as to how they with their specialized training could best contribute to the development of such a program.

Several meetings of the Commission have now been held. Perhaps its chief accomplishment to date has been the mere fact of its formation and the assembling of twenty or more representatives from as many fields around a council table to discuss a common responsibility. But already the preparation of a significant report is under

way. Each of the national organizations through a carefully-selected committee is preparing a chapter describing the relation of the field in question to the requirements of general education. It is expected that this first joint report of the Commission will appear before January, 1941. Its basic statement of objectives is taken substantially from the report of the Educational Policies Commission on the purpose of education in American democracy.

The second step that is now contemplated is the preparation of a series of monographs presenting sample, model, or source units on the various school levels illustrating the effective cooperation of teachers trained in special fields in the planning of a program based upon the current life needs and interests of learners. These source units will not be armchair productions, but reports of actual school experiences conducted under the supervision of the Commission.

The organizations now represented are: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, The American Association of Teachers of French, The American Association of Teachers of German, The American Association of Teachers of Journalism, The American Association of Teachers of Spanish, The American Classical League, The American Home Economics Association, The Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers, The Department of Art of the N. E. A., The Department of Home Economics of the N. E. A., The Department of Science of the N. E. A., The Eastern Arts Association, The Music Educators National Conference, The National Association of Journalism Directors, The National Association of Teachers

of Speech, The National Council for Business Education, The National Council of Teachers of English, The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, and The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers.

The Society for Curriculum Study is actively cooperating with the Commission. A committee consisting of Professor Holland D. Roberts of Stanford University, Professor B. Othanel Smith of the University of Illinois, Professor William S. Gray of the University of Chicago, Professor Malcolm McLean of the University of Minnesota, and Dr. Paul Misner, Superintendent of Schools, Glencoe, Illinois, has already met with the Commission and is participating in the plans for the first report.

AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM ON THE COLLEGE LEVEL

By D. Harley Fite

Director of Teacher Training, Austin Peay Normal School, Clarksville, Tennessee

WE OFTEN hear elementary teachers complain that many of their college education classes do not really help them solve their teaching problems. They complain that courses with excellent titles contain much material that is too general to help or contain material irrelevant to pupil needs. If this accusation is true and college teachers are not as sensitive as they should be to the needs of the elementary classroom, then it is evident that another approach to the problem should be made. Teachers who have been in service for several years should be able to help their college instructors plan classes to be of maximum benefit. This article describes the author's attempt to employ democratic methods in his class in "Materials and Methods for an Integrated Program" at Austin Peay Normal School, Clarksville, Tennessee.

The room assigned to the class was typical of most college classrooms, just bare walls, with nothing to demonstrate to the pupils (a class of in-service teachers) what a good elementary classroom should look like or to inspire teachers "to go and do likewise." The first task confronting the instructor and class was to make the room a pleasant place in which to live and work. As a result of the plans, democratically prepared, the class with the aid of N. Y. A. boys made three bulletin boards, put up seventy lineal feet of shelving for display of free and inexpensive materials, built two bookcases, made draperies for each window (the kind that do not cut out light and air), brought potted flowers and added fresh bouquets daily, constructed and planted window boxes, pushed the class chairs to one side and placed tables and folding chairs in the other half. On these tables they placed all the state-adopted elementary texts, both basal and supplementary, and many other children's books. They converted one corner of the room into a reading center, another into a science center, the third into an art center, while the fourth they left for blackboard space. The members of the class made the art materials, brought the science collections, and made the magazine stands, tables, chairs, reading charts, book ends, etc., for the reading center from apple boxes, orange crates, and other inexpensive materials. In short, they made the room into an ideal elementary classroom by the same means these teachers must use in their own buildings.

The class used one hour of the class period each day for discussion; the other hour they used for laboratory work such as writing, getting references and materials for teaching their units. They worked in the laboratory, the shop, the college library, and the county library. The pupils added to the room whatever they made, if appropriate for one of the three centers, with the privilege of removing it at the end of the quarter. It was an activity program on the college level.

The instructor gave the class a broad outline of the quarter's work at the beginning of the term. But believing that college classes should be democratic as well as those in elementary and high school and believing that teachers should be taught in college much as they are expected to teach back home, the instructor of this college class asked his pupils to help him plan further the course so as to make it of the most practical use to them for the next year.

After the teacher and pupils had decided on the program for a given period, the group set to work on the problem. The members of the class carried out most of the demonstrations since college people also learn by doing. A maximum of pupil activity and a minimum of teacher activity was the rule in this class. This article gives a few examples of the type of work carried on.

Since several people were working on their "community" as a teaching unit, the class chose this problem for demonstration teaching. They selected a member of the group to teach certain phases of the unit. It was demonstrated how to initiate the unit, how to culminate it, and how to carry on

a complete day's work, which included the activity period, the discussion period, and how to "care for the school subjects."

Each member of the class had an opportunity to present some phase of her work. If puppets had been made, this person demonstrated how she made them and how she used them for educative purposes. Another person demonstrated the use of her homemade movie, another the use of science experiments, another certain visual aids as homemade stereopticon slides, and others various educative activities, equipment, and materials for their specific units. The teacher and pupils definitely tied up every activity and project demonstrated with a learning situation.

A "STUDY GROUP" TYPE OF MEETING

By W. H. Dutton
General Supervisor, Eugene, Oregon,
Public Schools

ONE OF THE most difficult problems in curriculum development is to present new materials and changes to the entire teaching staff. This is particularly true in school systems where large groups of classroom teachers, representing all grade levels, cannot be too active in the preparation of new outlines, guides for various areas, etc. Too often teachers meetings are dry, boresome, and provide for a few to do the major part of the speaking and thinking. Teachers come to these meetings after a long day of teaching. They may follow the presentation or do some active thinking during the discussion period. Frequently the sonorous tones of the speaker let them drift away into a delightful land of dreams for tired teachers.

Supervision bulletins or superintendent's bulletins are, in most cases, of little value. Teachers are too busy, too tired, and often unwilling to work through a mimeographed outline that is not too meaningful or helpful to them. The Eugene Public Schools have attempted several types of meetings. The school system has six elementary schools, two junior high schools, and two high schools. The teaching staff totals about 150 teachers. Recently the Central Curriculum Committee discussed a plan for presenting a tentative outline for language arts to all teachers.

In order to introduce a tentative working outline for language arts fused with social living, a "study group" type of meeting was used. Each group had approximately fifteen members. There were ten groups representing teachers from all levels and areas. Attendance was required. Schools were dismissed one hour early to allow teachers to come to the meeting. A general meeting, lasting twenty minutes was held at the beginning to introduce the outline and give directions. At the close of the general session teachers went directly to their study groups. Study group leaders were selected at random. Principals and teachers were used according to

their ability to direct discussions and because of their understanding of the language arts program. Study group meetings were about an hour in length. This proved to be too short a period. At the close of the study group meetings, teachers came back to the assembly room for a half-hour summary. For the summary each group presented a brief report, two minutes in length, and a detailed written summary for the language arts committee to use in improving and revising the guide or course of study. An evaluation sheet was given to all teachers. They reported voluntarily and no names were given.

The results of the evaluation sheet showed definite results. Teachers did like this type of meeting. They wanted more meetings organized in this way when new materials were to be presented. The written summaries and conclusions given to the language arts committee by the secretaries of each of the ten study groups were most helpful and worth while.

We consider the study group type of teachers meeting very much worth while. It is a new tool or technique with which we are working. We will try to sharpen it and make it more effective.



CURRICULUM RESEARCH

ANDERSON, D. OWENS—*The Development of the Public Schools of the State of Kentucky with Particular Reference to Curriculums*. Cincinnati, Ohio: Teachers College, University of Cincinnati. 1939. Doctor's dissertation.

It was the purpose of the study¹ to trace historically the development of the curriculum of the public schools, elementary and secondary, of Kentucky. Sources included reports, courses of study, manuals, records and proceedings, educational and municipal directories, newspapers, personal interviews, periodicals, educational histories and texts, graduate theses, and miscellaneous studies.

A total of 103 different subject titles were found in the curriculums of the private and public academies through the period of 118 years. Seventy-six per cent of the course offerings of these early schools consisted of mathematics, science, social science, English, and classical languages. The patterns set by the early academies and seminaries were followed by the public high schools.

Subjects taught in the early private elementary schools were chiefly reading, writing, mental and written arithmetic, geography, spelling, and English grammar, with occasionally the addition of English classics. The first public school curriculum enacted into law required three subjects, grammar, arithmetic, and geography. In 1938 the official state elementary curriculum included twenty-one required and

nine optional subjects. In spite of constant additions, few subjects have been eliminated from the curriculum. The first provision for a state course of study for junior high schools appeared in 1936. Terminology has been altered through the years: thus in 1936 physiology became health education and nature study became elementary science in the official course of study.

The curriculums of the Kentucky high schools are reported to have been characterized by lack of uniformity in grade placement of subjects, confusion of terminology, predominance of college-preparatory type courses, a tendency toward uniformity as the high school movement developed, a steady increase of subjects offered, a trend toward differentiated curriculums toward the close of the nineteenth century, the inclusion of vocational courses since 1918, a gradual shifting of emphasis from preparation for college as chief aim to preparation for living in the past twenty years, a decrease in subjects required for graduation with parallel increase in electives, and greater emphasis in the past decade upon extra-class activities and physical education. It is reported that textbooks determined curriculum content.

Changes noted in the junior high schools as compared to traditional schools were the earlier study of languages, reorganization of mathematics and science courses, emphasis on clubs and activities, provisions for guidance, the use of industrial arts, home economics, music, business subjects shifted from upper secondary grades, more articulation within Grades 7, 8, and 9, greater use of elective subjects in these

¹Good, Carter V. and Others. Abstracts, Graduate Theses in Education, Teachers College, University of Cincinnati, 1937, 1938, 1939. Cincinnati, Ohio: University of Cincinnati. 1940. 251 p. \$2.00.

grades. Changes taking place in the elementary grades in Kentucky are described as more shifts of methods of presentation than changes in the subjects of the curriculum.

Recommendations include greater supervision of elementary school curriculums by the State Department of Education, somewhat comparable to that now given secondary schools; a state-wide program of continuous curriculum study and revision; more emphasis on creative activities, leisure time activities, the fine and practical arts; less weight on college entrance; and more freedom for local school authorities.

ROLFE LANIER HUNT
Louise, Mississippi

LAWSON, DOUGLAS E.—*Curriculum Development in City School Systems*. Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1940. 238 pp. \$2.00.

The author investigated significant changes of the past hundred years in the curriculum of ten representative large city school systems of the United States. Utilizing the techniques of historical research, he examined nearly four thousand documents, including reports of superintendents and boards of education, special bulletins, printed courses of study, and survey reports. The cities cooperating in the study were: Baltimore, Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, Denver, Louisville, Oakland, Pittsburgh, St. Louis, and Seattle.

Chapters are devoted to the following aspects of the problem: the tabulation and classification of courses, changes in the curriculum in ten cities during the past hundred years, purposes dominating changes in the cur-

riculum, professional factors influencing changes in the curriculum, non-professional factors influencing curriculum changes, and educational trends with relation to the enlargement of the curriculum. A final chapter offers an able summary of the high lights of the investigation.

The curriculum changes reported include grade-to-grade shifts of subject matter, trends in the time allotted to the various subjects, and trends in the enrollments of pupils in various subjects.

Pertinent quotations from the author's summary are:

The early schools were designed to serve a professional and preparatory function for a selected group; but the later schools, impelled by the demands of a vastly increasing enrollment and influenced by the findings of research, have provided a diversified curriculum to meet the needs of all types of pupils.

The professional influences which have tended to bring about significant changes have been chiefly the (a) educational leaders; (b) school officers, particularly the city superintendents; and (c) organized educational research and surveys. On the other hand, the *status quo* in education has been defended to a large extent through the influences of (a) college and university entrance requirements; (b) the textbooks; and (c) certain of the early national committees and commissions.

Tradition has tended strongly to keep the schools from initiating new programs. The greatest non-professional factor in bringing about changes has been a composite of many forces in the changing social and industrial life. This indirect and intangible factor has been influential in forcing some of the outstanding changes both in the curriculum and in the organization of the schools.

School administrators and curriculum directors should be able to use the authentic findings of this survey to combat the arguments of those who oppose genuine curriculum improvements on the grounds that they are "fads and frills." *Curriculum Development in City School Systems* should facilitate the task of educators

in developing new practices in the school curriculum and in eliminating practices which are retained merely because of the influence of tradition.

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Los Angeles County Schools

STUDY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

Launched in 1935, the Minnesota Study of Physical Education and related activities had two chief purposes: 1. to provide a body of practical and tested principles and techniques for the improvement of community programs of health and morale-building activities; and 2. to provide a basis for better professional preparation of physical education teachers. Like the Owatonna Art Education Project, the study has used small representative communities as the basic unit of investigation; it has attempted to examine the physical education programs of Glencoe and Litchfield, Minnesota, against the background of informal community activities.

During the past three years, the following specific investigations have been undertaken in the order given: 1. Surveys of physical education in the two communities with some consideration directed toward health education. 2. Surveys of community recreation. 3. Investigation of leisure-time activities of parents and their children in Grades 6 to 12 of both schools. 4. Study of the play interests of approximately 180 pupils in the first two grades by means of interviews with children and questionnaire responses of parents in December, 1935, and May, 1936. 5. Studies of physical education activities and recreational interests of the pupils in Grades 3 to 12. 6.

A study of the recreational interests of 189 women and 149 men in Glencoe and Litchfield by means of interviews. 7. Job analyses of directors of health and physical education in Glencoe and Litchfield during the fall of 1936, winter of 1936-37, and spring of 1937. The data have been used as a basis for recommending changes in the professional physical education curriculum for men. 8. Study of physical education facilities and equipment of the accredited public secondary schools of Minnesota. 9. To provide additional bases for evaluation of the physical education and recreation programs, selected areas of physical education were surveyed in May, 1938.

The data secured are so extensive that their analysis and interpretation have not been completed. A Ph.D. thesis which involves developmental, type, seasonal, residential, and socio-economic analyses of play interests of pupils in Grades 3 to 12 has been started. A less extensive Master's dissertation will provide an analysis of the recreational interests of adults.

The physical education studies and programs in Glencoe and Litchfield have attracted national attention; and the extent of their wholesome influence has exceeded the anticipation of members of the Department of Physical Education and Athletics connected with the study. Dr. C. L. Nordly has been in general charge of the projects. The advising committee for this study included Dean E. M. Freeman, Professors J. E. Anderson, F. S. Chapin, F. McCormick, L. F. Keller, and Dr. G. Hauser. The investigations were conducted by the University Committee on Educational Research, T. R. McConnell, chairman.

REVIEWS

BODE, B. H.—*How We Learn*. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company. 1940. 308 p. \$2.00.

Professor Bode, once again, has put all progressive educators in his debt. In *How We Learn*, he explores four theories of mind and of learning—mind as substance, mind as mental states, mind as conditioned reflex, and mind as function. His discussion is premised on the conviction that what educators "conceive or assume the mind to be is a determining influence, both in the field of method and in the realm of values or goals." He also shows how theories of mind are conditioned not only by the data from the sciences, but also by social and political ideals. Through a brilliant use of the methods of both historical and philosophical analysis, he succeeds in setting the whole problem of mind and education in a new perspective which should do much to clarify thought on this fundamental problem. I consider *How We Learn* the best comprehensive treatment of the educational implications of modern psychological and philosophical thought now available.

Professor Bode is a pragmatist and accepts Dewey's conception of mind as function as the most adequate theory yet developed. He also agrees with those who find an organic connection between this theory of mind and the democratic way of life.

His discussion of the educational movement sponsored by Hutchins and Adler is particularly important. He associates their emphasis, correctly, in my opinion, with a mind-body dualism,

a faculty psychology, and the doctrine of formal discipline. And he also shows the individualistic, aristocratic social conception which is logically involved in the movement to make the classics the core of the curriculum.

In the last two chapters, Professor Bode discusses the social function of education. On the whole, I find these chapters much more satisfactory than certain of his earlier discussions. He emphasizes that democracy is a total way of life and not merely a political device based on the principle of majority rule. He holds that a democratic outlook with its stubborn faith in the possibility of ordinary experience developing its controlling standards and principles from within its own processes is both an empirical and a naturalistic outlook. The traditional dualism between art and utility, and culture and vocation, is incompatible, in Dr. Bode's opinion, with the democratic theory of social life. He stresses that more socialization of industry is required if democracy is to preserve its ideal of equality in our present interdependent industrial society. Although emphasizing the principle of mutuality, he affirms the right of democratic government to compel employers to recognize the right of workers to collective bargaining. His social outlook seems to envisage the continuance of a reformed capitalism, although he does not use this term, and he does not discuss what will be required to release the powers of production.

In education, he rejects the notion that democracy means indulging the whims and passing fancies of children.

He recognizes that the child does not inherit, but learns, the democratic pattern. He declares for a school so organized in all of its affairs that the child shall have an opportunity to experience and practice democracy. He would make what he considers the essence of the democratic conception—"the continuous organization of social relations in the direction of co-operation on the basis of mutual recognition of interests"—the controlling principle in each and every activity of the school. He would discipline children on the basis of this theory and practice.

All of this Professor Bode would have in his school. But then he astonishes, at least this reader, by reaffirming the classical progressive formula which opposes, as indoctrination, all education that seeks the deliberate nurture of a particular social outlook, faith and allegiance. Democratic education, he avers, must proceed "in the faith that if the issue is made clear, democracy will prevail in the end." It must rest "its case on the appeal to intelligence." Apparently, in his hands this educational "appeal to intelligence" is taking on a lot of new cargo.

Possibly we can make the difficulty in Professor Bode's position clearer by an illustration. Suppose that a child lives in an English-speaking community. His parents, his playmates, all of those with whom he does business, speak the English language. At school he reads English books, writes all of his papers in English, and participates in discussions both inside the classroom and outside carried on exclusively in English. He is approved when he speaks and writes good English, he is disapproved when he fails so to do. But the school, of course, does nothing

to predetermine his choice of language. It lets him know that other folks speak other languages, it hopes that he will appreciate the beauties and the weaknesses of these languages. It may even give him a course or two in them. It then "appeals" to his "intelligence" to choose his own mode of speech from the languages of the world. It has faith in his intelligence and is ready to abide by whatever choice he makes even if he decides for Italian or Russian as opposed to English. In sum, the school expects him to decide what his native tongue should be by reason, not by habit, attitude, or experience.

Impossible? Yes! But no more impossible than Professor Bode's proposal for an education in democracy which is in no way to predetermine the child's preferences for a way of life. However, the discussion on indoctrination constitutes only a minor part of a book which, as a whole, is of such high quality that it should be on the "must list" of all thoughtful educational workers.

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BUTTS, R. FREEMAN—*The College Charts Its Course—Historical Conceptions and Current Proposals*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1939. 464 pp. \$3.00.

This is a history of the rise and decline of the elective system. Incidentally it is a criticism, from the Dewey point-of-view, of a wide range of current proposals for college education. It is also exceptionally well organized and written. Consequently, it should be interesting to everybody

engaged in college curriculum improvement. Whether its approach gives as important a clue to the solution of college problems as the author believes, however, may be doubted.

The book is divided into four parts. Beginning with "the seven liberal arts," Part I gives briefly the usual estimate of the curriculum prescriptions in the Middle Ages, the addition of the classics in the Renaissance, the solidifying effect of the Reformation, and the practical turn during the century before the American Revolution. After telling of the first experiments with the elective system by Jefferson and Ticknor, Part II describes the resultant controversy between the "conservatives" who favored mental discipline and prescribed studies and the "progressives." Part III, at greater length, tells of the early elective systems of Harvard, Cornell, Columbia, Johns Hopkins, Stanford, and Chicago, as well as the accompanying disputes. Part IV, in 170 pages of interesting detail, comments upon the modifications of the elective system since 1910, describing the leading controversies between the new conservatives and progressives, and incidentally the most prominent current curriculum plans.

The conclusion is that the conservatives are resisting attempts to meet new needs. The progressive point-of-view the author seems to define as an emphasis upon a watchtower purpose instead of an ivory-tower one, practical and vocational subjects rather than so-called cultural alone, the whole personality instead of book-mindedness, freedom rather than the traditional kind of discipline, an organicism instead of a faculty psychology, and a philosophy of "ex-

perimental naturalism" rather than of absolutism and dualism.

The many admirable features of this factual, critical book will probably win general commendation for it. Yet, in order to appraise the elective system and recent modifications of it, or any other policy, college educators need as full a perspective as possible of their whole task—perspective of *all* curriculum problems and pertinent social needs, as well as of the effects of desirable changes in method, admissions, and other factors. Centering attention upon the elective system may not give an adequate vantage point for a history and criticism of current college problems.

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BRUMLEY, OSCAR V. AND CHARTERS,
W. W.—*A Curriculum in Veterinary Medicine*. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Press. 1939. 78 p.

The publication of *A Curriculum in Veterinary Medicine*, by Brumley and Charters, adds one more splendid document to the growing list of reports on experimental procedures in functionalizing curricula. The general point of view that curriculum structure should be determined by function is too frequently overlooked but is one for which Charters has consistently stood.

Those who believe that subject matter in itself is sacred will do well to avoid this publication, for the plan of attack cuts across subject matter rather ruthlessly and each item within the curriculum has been justified by its usefulness to the practicing veterinarian. When the decision was made

that the curriculum in the Ohio State College of Veterinary Medicine should be revised, a plan of attack was outlined as follows:

1. A study was made as to the types of positions for which the college could train. This study included a demand and supply survey of veterinarians already in the field and of the need for additional services.

2. The duties and characteristics of practicing veterinarians were analyzed so that the faculty might have a definite picture of problems and responsibilities in the field.

3. Three general types of courses were set up, based upon activity analyses. These were general education courses, professional courses, and business courses.

4. A list of diseases and the duties involved in the treatment of these diseases were classified and each course was checked against the duties to see the contribution it could make.

5. Service courses in chemistry, mathematics and the like were prepared to give substantial foundation to the professional courses.

6. All of the courses derived from procedures indicated above were organized into a curriculum designed to prepare students to become practicing veterinarians.

The techniques for carrying out each of these steps are indicated clearly and substantiated with ample illustrative material. With this report at hand, it would not be a difficult job to adapt these techniques to any professional field.

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PRINCIPLES OF UNIT CONSTRUCTION: A REPLY

In the February number of CURRICULUM JOURNAL there appeared a review of *Principles of Unit Construction*, by Jones, Grizzell, and Grinstead. Usually one review of a new book is all that is published in a magazine, but since this review so signally misses the point in the book, it seems well to call attention to certain points that the reviewers seem not to have considered.

One of their criticisms is that "one is led to wonder whether the authors are familiar with the evolution of the unit concept?" basing this comment on the following statement in the book: "the unit of interest fails because it utilizes the old formal methods for the development of habits and skill." It is difficult to see what the "evolution of the unit concept" has to do with the fact that units of interest (making a Viking boat, building a Dutch village) are used with a view to developing this skill, that habit, or that understanding, in the hope that these will carry over into real situations in life. This is the old formal method of attacking education by analyzing activities into habits, skills, etc.; not at all the same as developing "such an integrated combination of habits and skills as will result in the adjustment of the individual to a *life situation*." The very philosophies of education underlying the two concepts differ, a point which the authors of the review have missed completely.

A unit of adaptation is based on the need for meeting some typical *life situation*; it is built to produce in the person carrying out its activities the ability to meet this typical *life situation*. If the situation is not typical,

the adaptation in the person is of comparatively little value, however interesting the activities may have been. A unit of interest is based on the need for getting something that the children will enjoy doing in order that, while working, they may get a chance to develop whatever habits and skills are possible under the circumstances. The aim is to keep the children busy and happy, some gaining one skill, others another, some learning one habit, others perhaps another.

There is in the unit of adaptation an attempt to test the situation. If the test is inadequate, it is the fault of the test, a fault that test makers are working constantly to overcome. There is, however, no attempt to test any outcomes in connection with the unit of interest. The teacher simply assumes that these have been secured. The difference between the two concepts is brought out very clearly in the book itself.

The reviewers are "amazed to discover that in practice these units of adaptation are to be confined to departmental subject fields." The loose use of *to be* in the criticism gives the entirely wrong impression of the attitude of the authors of the book. In point of fact, the units of adaptation are *not* to be confined to the subject field; but they may, if the situation of the teacher demands it, be so confined. And the reason is this:

Teachers in the secondary schools work largely in subject matter fields, however much those who do not do the teaching decry the situation. The teachers, too, decry it, but, while they "must teach children, not subjects,"

they must teach these children *via* subjects in most schools; and, except in certain exceptional cases, the great majority of teachers will do so for some time to come. Since this is so, methods of education that fail to recognize this fact and provide for it are of little practical value. It is the recognition of this fact as well as the constant criticism of individuals working on their units that is responsible for the authors' statement and for their attempt to help teachers meet their teaching situations. Each person emerges from the work with a unit planned to fit his own school situation, broad and free or narrow and circumscribed as that individual situation may be, and such units are used and many of them reported on with the users' suggestions for changes in procedure, with comment on successes and failures and the general value of the unit.

Perhaps if those wishing to use the book would read the short authors' preface and the equally short editor's introduction, they would see more plainly the intention of the authors and so be able to use the contents of the book with more understanding and hence with more success than casual readers might. The book is not a theoretical treatise; it is not a history of the unit concept; it is a workbook designed to help teachers organize their teaching into units of adaptation that fit their own teaching situations.

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